SOME NEW BOOKS.

Chile.

For several reasons the republic of Chile has a peculiar interest for the students of the American commonwealth. With the exception of the Argentine Confederation, it is the only one of the Spanish American States which has shown a marked capacity of growth. It has, upon the whole, been less convulsed with revolutions than any other, and its Constitution is more oligarchic than that of any other republic upon this continent. What is no less noteworthy, Chile has witnessed during the last sixty years the same evolution of the principle and practice of ministerial accountability which has gone on for centuries in England. According to the letter of the organic law, the Government of Chile is of the Presidential type, and the Ministers are responsible only to the Chief Magistrate; but, through an accumulation of precedents, the extra-constitutional usage, whereby Ministers have deferred to the Chamber of Deputies, has acquired all the force of law, and the violation of this custom was one of the causes or pretexts for the revolution which overthrew President Balmaceda.

With respect to two sections of Chilean history, there are ample means of information accessible in English. We refer to the war for independence against Spain and the ensuing revolutionary epoch which closed in 1829, and to the war against Peru and Bolivia, which began in 1879 and ended in 1883. It has been less easy to obtain a full and accurate account of the interval between those wars and of the scarcely less important decade which began in 1883. These two gaps in our means of information will be found satisfactorily supplied by Mr. Anson Uriel Hancock in *A History of Chile* (Chicago, Charles H. Sergel & Co.). The author's narrative, indeed, starts at the beginning of the colonial epoch and is brought down to 1893, but the parts of it to which we shall confine ourselves are those dealing with the events following the war against Peru, and presenting a conspectus of the State of Chile to-day. It is possible that Chilean opponents of Balmaceda may object to the sober, disinterested, and impartial way in which the recent revolution is discussed, but they will not find it easy to convict the author of any misstatement of fact, for he has taken the precaution to support his principal conclusions by appending to this volume a copy of the Chilean Constitution.

I.

It is pointed out in a chapter allotted to the civil war of 1891 that, from 1817, when the Spanish yoke was thrown off, until 1833, Chile was governed by dictators, sometimes well, sometimes ill, but always with autocratic power. In the latter year was promulgated a Constitution, under whose workings the Government remained comparatively tranquil for nearly sixty years; this Constitution, amended in 1874 and at other times, is the organic law of Chile to-day. It was originally framed, not by Liberals, but by Conservatives, and, while giving to the President extensive, almost dictatorial powers, still intended to make him a creature of the oligarchy. This organic law, as we have said, established a Government not of the parliamentary, but of the Presidential type. In this respect the Chilean Constitution resembles that of the United States, but differs from it in important particulars, the provisions regarding the suffrage being much less democratic, and the scheme of government being rather centralized than federal. The President is chosen by electors nominated by the voters of the provinces, three electors being allowed for each member of the Chamber of Deputies. His term of office is for five years, and he cannot now be twice elected consecutively. He is bound to convoke Congress in regular session, from June 1 to Sept. 1, but he can, at any time, prorogue it for a term of fifty days; he can summon it in special session whenever he pleases. He appoints and removes the six Ministers, who, as we have said, have no constitutional responsibility to either House of Commons; he also appoints and removes the intendentes of provinces, the governors of towns, diplomatic agents, and five out of the eleven members of the Council of State. He is practically Commander-in-Chief of the army and navy; he appoints the Judges of both the higher and lower courts, upon the recommendation of the Council of State, and he approves, promulgates, and takes part in the making of laws, issuing such decrees, regulations, and instructions as he may deem conducive to their execution. It is evident that the powers thus delegated by the letter of the Constitution to the President would make him in fact almost an autocrat should he choose to be dictatorial. In the few instances where he must act in conjunction with the Council of State he can wield a preponderant influence, for he has, as we have said, the appointment of five out of eleven members of that body, the other six being chosen in the proportion of three from each branch of Congress. According to the Constitution of Chile, as by the Constitution of the United States, a President's Cabinet is entirely of his own appointment, owing no deference to the Legislature, although, as we shall see, a different practice has gradually grown up. In the mean time, we note that certain members appointed by Congress from each branch of it constitute an advisory committee, whose functions are to see that there is due observance of the Constitution while Congress is not in session, to tender advice to the President, and to suggest the expediency of extra sessions. As a matter of fact, so long as the letter of the Constitution is not violated, this committee is purely advisory, with no power which a President, not in sympathy with the Congress, is legally bound to obey.

Before we mark the effect of these constitutional provisions, and of the extra-constitutional practices which had eventually taken root, upon the controversy between President Balmaceda and the majority of the Congress in 1891, let us say a word about the restrictions on the suffrage. According to the Constitution, all Chileans possess the franchise who, having reached the age of twenty-five years, if unmarried, or twenty-one years, if married, and knowing how to read and write, shall possess real estate or capital invested in any kind of business or industry, or shall exercise any employment whose emoluments shall be proportionate to the income of such real estate or capital. The real significance of this provision lies in a supplemental clause to the effect that the amount of the real estate or capital necessary for the franchise is to be fixed by a special law every ten years for each province. Under the operation of this clause, and of another which makes the function of active citizenship incompatible with the status of domestic service, a very large proportion of laboring men in Chile are practically cut off from the right of voting, and the Government still remains what it was designed to be by the authors of the Constitution, to a large extent oligarchical.

II.

Now let us see on what grounds the author, while not defending all the administrative acts of Balmaceda, holds that the position taken by him in 1891 was technically correct. Balmaceda declared that Congress, so far as any express terms of the Constitution went, had no more right to dictate to him what Ministers he should choose than it had to determine what food he should eat or what clothes he should wear. This is pronounced unquestionably true, but Mr. Hancock nevertheless submits that, inasmuch as a Parliamentary usage had grown up outside of the Constitution by which the Ministry was formed after the English plan, and not upon the American plan, courtesy and discretion should have led the Chief Magistrate to follow the precedent. The Chilean Constitution had not hitherto been followed to the letter, but, in practice, a Parliamentary system had gradually been substituted for a Presidential, for the reason that the Government of Chile had continuously been in its working rather oligarchical than democratic. It had offered an example of king and barons rather than of President and people. From the establishment of the present Constitution in 1833 up to the inauguration of Balmaceda, the Conservative aristocracy had virtually controlled the Government. Presidents had usually, though not always, yielded to the wishes of Congress because Congresses had generally been of the same political affiliations. Hence had arisen what the opponents of Balmaceda described as a *lex non scripta*, and which they maintained to be of the same binding force as the custom which, in England, makes Cabinet Ministers accountable to a majority of the House of Commons, although the existence of such a responsible Cabinet is not recognized in any British statute. On the whole, therefore, Mr. Hancock considers that, although the Government of Chile had become Parliamentary by precedent and sufferance, not by virtue of any provision of the Constitution, Signor Balmaceda, when he found himself opposed not only by the Conservatives but by three factions of the Liberal party, should, as a matter of good sense and wisdom, have bowed to the will of the legislative majority. At the same time it is admitted that the opposition to Balmaceda was actuated rather by selfish interests than by patriotic motives. The nation was heavily in debt, and many of the old aristocratic families were in financial straits; it enraged them that, at such a juncture, Balmaceda should be building expensive schoolhouses. When it looked as if another Liberal might be elected to succeed Balmaceda, it was natural that they should offer the most strenuous resistance. The clergy hated Balmaceda because he was accused of being a freethinker, and had undoubtedly cut down ecclesiastical revenues, particularly through the institution of civil marriages. The tradesmen in Santiago and Valparaiso were found, as might have been expected, on the side of their wealthy patrons. Many people espoused the cause of the Congress against Balmaceda on account of the suspicion and resentment with which they regarded a one-man power. The influential foreign elements in Chile were also against the President because he had hinted at curtailments of grants to foreign corporations, and had lamented the fact that though Chilean blood had purchased the nitrate fields of Tarapacá, their wealth was rapidly passing away into foreign hands.

III.

In order to understand the causes or pretexts of the revolution of 1891, and to comprehend why the author regards Balmaceda as an Andrew Johnson rather than a Robespierre, we should glance at the political parties in Chile, and then follow in detail the events which immediately preceded the civil war. Balmaceda had been returned in 1886 by the Liberal party, composed of at least four elements, but loosely united. These were respectively designated as Liberales del Gobierno, who were out-and-out Balmacedists; as Nacionalists, comprising those who were opposed to making a wide distribution of the offices on the ground that it would be unfair to the old Liberal party; as Sueltos, who were of all shades of political liberalism; and finally, as Radicals, who were extreme Liberals, and came at last to view Balmaceda's administration as tending toward a Conservative reaction. The Conservatives, on their part, were split into three divisions — the Montt-Varistas, aristocrats believing in aristocratic government; Clericales, who held that the priesthood ought to exercise an influence upon the Government, and, finally, the Conservadores proper, who, in point of fact, were less reactionary than either of the groups just named. Balmaceda, as we have said, had been elected by the Liberals, and, for two years, ruled not unsatisfactorily to them; but his pertinacious adherence to the strict letter of the Constitution as against the deference to Parliament evinced by his predecessors, his manner of distributing the spoils, his zeal in erecting public buildings and pushing public works requiring lavish expenditure, eventually excited disaffection on the part of most of his former supporters, until finally all but the Liberals del Gobierno, the officeholding faction, were arrayed against him in conjunction with the three factions of the Conservatives.

Thus matters stood in January, 1890. Four Cabinets had gone to pieces over the question whether costly public works should be constructed while the redemption of the paper currency was still unprovided for; nine Ministers for Foreign Affairs had succeeded each other in rapid succession, for, while Balmaceda persisted in his policy, he still continued for a while to choose Cabinets representing the fluctuating Parliamentary majority, not having yet made up his mind to disregard the unwritten Parliamentary law which had grown up, that the Ministers should be in harmony with Congress. Finally when Señor San Fuentes, who was supposed to be a candidate for the next Presidential term, was made Prime Minister by Balmaceda, a vote of censure was passed by the Chamber of Deputies. The President now determined to take the bull by the horns, and insisted that his Ministers should remain in office. This was a violation of precedents, but not of the letter of the Constitution. Congress replied by refusing to pass an appropriation bill until a Ministry should be appointed in accordance with its views. Thereupon Balmaceda yielded and formed a new Cabinet, with Judge Belisario Prato of the Supreme Court as Prime Minister. Congress professed to be satisfied, and voted temporary supplies. But the Chamber of Deputies and the new Ministry soon began to seek the removal of objectionable intendentes and other administrative officers, for the purpose of trammelling the President in the forthcoming election, particularly if he was scheming for the return of San Fuentes. The President had now come to the end of his concessions; he refused to remove anybody, save for an indictable and proven offence, pointing out that the session of Congress was an extraordinary one, called for the express purpose of passing the annual supply bill. At such a session, Congress had, so he maintained, no constitutional authority to go outside of the business for which it had been convoked, and take up the matter of the removal of officers and the consideration of Australian ballot bills and other measures intended to carry the election against his friends. Congress, nevertheless, refused to vote the supply bill until the objectionable officers were removed, and, as the President now showed himself inexorable, the Prato Ministry resigned. Balmaceda then appointed a new Ministry in sympathy with his views, and closed the session on Oct. 17, 1890. The next move was made by the committee of Congress, which sought, in the interim, to exercise the purely advisory powers which the Constitution gave it, and recommended that another extraordinary session should be called. The President and his Ministers hesitated about taking the course suggested; according to precedent, they should have obeyed the behest of the committee of Congress; according to the Constitution, they were not obliged to do so. While they were deliberating, the committee arrogated to itself the non-constitutional power of calling a session on its own responsibility. There was no warrant for such a step, and the Congress, when assembled in pursuance of such a course, could do no more than debate and denounce; but this it did in a lively way. It became apparent that no supplies would be voted by another extraordinary session, but rather that some sort of a law would be passed for the deposition of the alleged dictator; the President, therefore, called no session, but disregarded protests and appeals from citizens, corporations, and the press. Inasmuch, however, as the Government could not keep the State machinery in working order without funds, and as the temporary supplies would be of no avail after Sept. 31, it was plain that prompt and summary action would be necessary if the President was to maintain his power and persist in his dictatorial policy. Consequently, on Jan. 1, 1891, Balmaceda issued a manifesto declaring it his intention to adhere to his constitutional powers, and to stand by the strict letter of the organic law, whether or not some of its provisions were to be considered as having become in practice a dead letter. With the alleged unfairness and effeteness of certain provisions he had, he said, nothing to do; neither did the new theories of parliamentary government concern him, until such theories were embodied in positive law. There would soon be a general election, when the people might decide. In the mean time he should perform his duty according to his oath and the dictates of the Constitution.

IV.

Balmaceda had to fight not only the majority of the Chilian Congress, but also the Supreme Court. That tribunal decided that the army and navy had no legal existence after Dec. 31, 1890, inasmuch as no Congress had then passed the annual law granting supplies and prescribing the strength of the land and naval forces for the ensuing year. As regards this point, the author of this history concedes that the court was technically right, but the President declined to obey the court, on the ground set forth in article 83 of the Constitution, which forbids any charges to be made against the Executive for any of the acts of his administration until after the conclusion of his term of office. Almost simultaneously with the demonstration made by the court, the non-constitutional Congress, which had been illegally convoked by the advisory committee, declared the President deposed, and empowered Señor Jorge Montt of the navy to assume provisionally the duties of Chief Magistrate. Thereupon a junta was formed aboard ship, consisting of Señor Montt, of Waldo Silva, Vice-President of the Senate, and of Barros Luco, President of the Chamber of Deputies.

On Jan. 7, 1891, six days after the publication of Balmaceda's manifesto, civil war began. The commanders of the Blanco Encalada, Cochrane, and Huascar, the only ironclads in the navy, declared at once for the Congress; the wooden vessels followed their lead. The army, on the other hand, adhered to Balmaceda, whose rôle thenceforth was practically that of a dictator. The Congress hastened to find a place of security on board the war ships, and a state of siege was proclaimed. The opponents of Balmaceda had expected a revolt of the army, but in that respect were disappointed. The army, partly through loyalty to its ostensible chief, partly through jealousy of the navy, and partly owing to an increase of pay, stood by the President, and, as there were some six thousand soldiers in Valparaiso, which, moreover, was strongly fortified, there was nothing for the revolutionary leaders to do but to proceed northward to Iquique, and there attempt to convert to their use the main sinews of war, to wit, the annual revenue of upward of $20,000,000, derived from the nitrate fields.

We need not recapitulate the events that followed, and which culminated on Sept. 18, 1891, when Balmaceda shot himself at Santiago in the house of the Argentine Minister, where he had taken refuge. We pass to the last five chapters of this volume, which contain many interesting data with relation to the Chile of to-day.

V.

Chile is a long, narrow tract of country, stretching some 2,600 miles along the Pacific coast of North America; its breadth varies from forty to one hundred miles, and its area is computed at nearly 294,000 square miles, a larger superficies than that of any European State, with the exception of Russia. Before the recent acquisitions of territory from Peru and Bolivia, Chile was bounded on the north by the Atacama desert, but by the treaty of October, 1883, the adjoining coast districts of Antofagasta and Tarapaca were ceded to it by Bolivia and Peru respectively. It was also provided that the Peruvian districts of Tacna and Arica should remain in the possession of Chile for ten years from the date of the treaty, at the end of which period a plebiscite should determine to which country these districts should belong, the sum of $10,000,000 being paid by the successful competitor to the other. The population of Chile in January, 1890, was estimated at 2,715,400, which gives an average of only 9.2 inhabitants to the square mile. The number of Indians does not exceed 50,000, while, on the other hand, the foreign population is said to be upward of 87,000. The external debt of Chile in January, 1890, was a little more than $47,000,000, the internal debt over $24,000,000, while the paper money in circulation amounted to nearly $22,500,000. The estimated income for that year was $58,000,000, but in addition to this, there was an unexpended balance from 1889 of more than $31,000,000. The estimated expenditures for 1890 were about $67,000,000. The annual imports and exports were not far from $65,000,000 each. In these figures, we have accepted for convenience the silver peso at its nominal value of $1; its actual value in 1891 was 91.2 cents. We may here mention that, besides the silver peso, the following coins are issued from the Chilean mint: ten dollar (condor), five dollar (medio condor or doblon), two dollar (escudo), and one dollar (peso) gold pieces. There are silver pieces, worth respectively a half, a fifth, and a twentieth of a dollar, and there are nickel and copper coins valued at two and a half cents, one cent, two cents, and half a cent.

Chile has no single city with the population of Buenos Ayres, but her urban population is distributed among many important centres. Santiago, the capital, had on Jan. 1, 1890, not far from 200,000 inhabitants. Valparaiso had half as many. Talca Concepcion, Chillan La Serena, and Iquique came next in the order of population. There are seventy-seven cities and towns in Chile which are emporia too considerable to be ranked as villages. Let us now see what facilities exist for communication between these large centres. Concerning this point, it is worth noting that Chile was the first country in South America to build railroads, and, from the start, in 1850, their construction was regarded as a legitimate function of the Government. At present the State owns and operates the line between Santiago and Valparaiso, with the important branch of Los Andes, which is a section of the great transcontinental line from Santiago to Buenos Ayres. The State also owns and works the line from Santiago to Talcahuano, together with its several branches. These lines have a combined length of nearly seven hundred miles, and are valued at about $50,000,000; they carried in 1890 over 3,000,000 passengers, and returned a clear profit of exactly 3.11 per cent. upon the capital. The State also owns in one of the northern provinces a line from Chañaral to Animis and Salados, about forty miles in length. There is also a large amount of private capital invested in railways, more than a thousand miles of track having been already laid and worked by private corporations. There are, moreover, about a dozen private lines under way or projected in the nitrate and mineral provinces, which, when completed, will add not far from 700 miles to the railway system. The spanning of the Andes by the railway to Buenos Ayres is one of the most notable feats of modern engineering. To cross the Uspallata Pass the road is obliged to overcome an elevation of nearly 10,000 feet; on the Chilean side the grade is exceedingly steep, and to ascend it the Abt system of cogged locomotive wheels and racks bolted to the sleepers of the track are used to overcome the gradients for a distance of some twelve miles. There are several colossal bridges and four or five tunnels on the route, the longest tunnel being some three miles in length. We add that, in the year 1890, there were 13,730 miles of telegraph line, of which 8,000 were owned by the State. There were, at the same date, 500 Post Offices.

Next to the sum allotted for the construction and operation of railways, the most important item in the annual budget is the appropriation for the army and navy. The army on a peace footing, consists of 5,885 men; the national guard, which can be called out in the event of war, comprises nearly 9,000 artillery men, and more than 42,000 infantry. For the education of officers there are two military schools, besides an institute of military engineers, which sends its members to travel in Europe for the purpose of increasing their professional knowledge. It is not, however, the army, but the navy, which is preëminently the pride of the Government and of the people. It now includes a monitor, four ironclads, three corvettes and two gunboats, besides several transports, despatch boats, and sailing vessels. The finest ironclad in the Chilean fleet is the Arturo Prat, recently built in France. It is of 6,902 tons, and steams seventeen knots an hour. In 1890 there were in the Chilean navy 261 officers and 1,609 sailors. There is, it seems, at Valparaiso an efficient naval college, and at Santiago a hydrographic office, but there is no navy yard. In the event of a ship needing docking and repairs it must be sent to Europe.

VI.

Education in Chile has been for some years a subject not only of anxious concern on the part of the Government but of political strife. It is free, but the common people are slow to avail themselves of Balmaceda's schoolhouses. The chief educational centre is the capital. The national university at Santiago has from ten to fifteen hundred students. This and the National Institute, which has an equally large attendance, provide collegiate and professional courses. Medicine, law, mathematics, and the fine arts are said to be well taught. There are twenty-five provincial lyceums or high schools, with an aggregate annual attendance of nearly four thousand pupils. There is a normal school for the preparation of teachers, an agricultural school, and other establishments for special instruction. Of primary schools there are 1,029, about half of which are common to the two sexes, the rest being evenly divided between them. These public primary schools have a total yearly attendance of almost 85,000, and there are also 500 private schools which have in the aggregate 25,000 pupils. In 1890 the Congress appropriated over $7,000,000 for educational purposes. In Santiago are a museum of natural sciences and an academy of fine arts, a conservatory of music, and a botanical garden. The national library contains some 70,000 volumes. Seven daily papers are published in Santiago, with a total circulation of 30,000 copies; there are also several scientific and literary reviews. Valparaiso has four daily papers, with an aggregate circulation of over 20,000. Other cities likewise have dailies. Valparaiso, like Santiago, has a museum of natural history, with sections devoted to mineralogy, botany, as well as biology, ethnology, zoölogy and paleontology. The Museum of Fine Arts publishes a review, and is said to have a creditable collection of foreign and native works. An annual salon is held in the capital, and, by way of encouragement of the fine arts, the Government undertakes to send to Europe with pensions the most proficient pupils of the schools of painting and sculpture. The Conservatory of Music at Santiago is said to have a good many pupils; it is perhaps significant of the national taste that the pianoforte is a common article of furniture throughout the country. To sum up, however, the purport of all the data relating to education, it must be acknowledged that in this respect Chile is backward. There are nearly three-quarters of a million children who ought to be at school, but only a small proportion of them avail themselves of their opportunities. Of the three millions of people in the country, it is probably an overestimate to say that a third can read. It is true that the so-called upper classes are well educated and well informed.

As regards social life in Chile, we are told that the season in the capital is gay, though the older families there form an aristocratic coterie which is rather exclusive. It seems that every rich Chilean feels in duty bound to own a house in Santiago and to live there during the season. His house, however, is not often thrown open to visitors, and his family circle is a narrow one, seldom including any but relatives and near friends. In the tertulia, however, and at public receptions, dancing, and the ordinary social functions go on. In the afternoon society drives in the Cousiño Park; in the evening it promenades in the Alameda or goes to a pleasant little theatre on the Santa Lucia hill if it be summer; or, if it be winter, to a large, commodious theatre in the town, which is said to be the third in the world in point of size. On the great plaza on summer evenings a military band plays, while people known in society promenade in families, the young women being dressed in the French fashion and the young men apparently in the London way. Though educated in the belles lettres sense, the Chilean young woman is far from enjoying the amount of liberty conceded to her sex in the United States and England. She is vigilantly chaperoned and hampered by an etiquette which deprives her of the opportunity of becoming acquainted with young men. But this is true only of the higher classes. The right of poor women to obtain work is recognized; Chile is the only country where women are allowed to be street car conductors.

M. W. H.

General Scott.

No one will deny that Winfield Scott was the greatest General whom this country had produced up to the period of the civil war. With the exception of Andrew Jackson, he was the only General who came out of the war of 1812 with a great reputation, and the achievements of none of our revolutionary commanders could, for a moment, be compared with Scott's triumphant march from Vera Cruz to Mexico. Perhaps the credit due him for that march, though recognized at the time by Wellington, was not fully appreciated by his countrymen until the difficulty of repeating the performance was demonstrated by Forey at the head of a French force at least four times larger. Had the greatness of that exploit been duly measured by a people peculiarly affected by military renown, it is incredible that Scott in 1852 should have been so disastrously beaten in his contest for the Presidency. That, unlike some Generals who have been politically more successful, Scott possessed some eminent qualifications for statesmanship had been proved on several occasions during the interval between the wars in which he bore a part, especially in his removal of the Cherokees to the Indian Territory, and in his effectual efforts to avert collisions between American citizens and British subjects on our northeastern and northwestern frontiers. When our civil war began, Scott was 75 years old, only five years older than Von Moltke was at the beginning of the Franco-German war, but the former was greatly broken in health and disqualified for active service, unlike Von Moltke, who lived some twenty years after the conflict which had shown what a soldier of seventy could do.

It is to Winfield Scott that the latest addition to the Great Commanders series, now in course of publication by the Appletons, is devoted. The author, Gen. Marcus J. Wright, is, at times, a little careless in the matter of literary arrangement and of diction, but he is thoroughly alive to the importance of his subject, and has endeavored to present the facts in a trustworthy and exhaustive, as well as a sympathetic way. We can touch only on a few features of this interesting narrative, passing over, those with which the majority of readers are already familiar.

I.

It was Virginia, the mother of Presidents, that gave us Gen. Scott, as she was to give us Gen. Thomas. In 1746, James Scott, a Scotchman of the Buccleuch clan, and a follower of the Young Pretender, made his way to Virginia, after the defeat at Culloden. His son, William, married Ann Mason, a native of Dinwiddie county. Winfield Scott was the issue of this marriage. He was born at Laurel Branch, fourteen miles from Petersburg, June 13, 1786. His father, who had been the Captain of a Virginia company in the Continental army, died when the boy was but 6 years old, and eleven years afterward his mother left Winfield, at 17 years of age, to make his own way in the world. He seems to have received a good preparatory education for the period, and in 1805 he entered William and Mary College, where he remained about a year. He then became a student in a law office in Petersburg, and in due course was admitted to the bar. His career in this profession came suddenly to an end in May, 1808, when, an outbreak of war with England seeming imminent, he received from President Jefferson an appointment to be Captain of artillery. Recruiting a company in Petersburg and Richmond, he embarked for New Orleans in February 1809. At this time Wilkinson, who had been in command at New Orleans, was generally suspected of complicity in Aaron Burr's conspiracy, and Capt. Scott indiscreetly expressed the belief that he was guilty. For this assertion he was tried by court martial and pronounced guilty of unofficerlike conduct. On his return to Virginia after the trial he applied himself to the study of military work and acquired the technical knowledge which he was soon to turn to account. That the Wilkinson affair had not hurt him in the eyes of the Administration seems clear from the fact that, on the outbreak of the war of 1812, he was, at the age of 26, appointed a Lieutenant-Colonel in the United States army. Less than a year afterward he was promoted to the Colonelcy of his regiment and appointed Adjutant-General. Becoming chief of staff to Gen. Dearborn, then in command of the American forces at Fort Niagara, he organized all the staff departments, several of which were entirely new, while others had fallen into disuse since the Revolutionary war. In November, 1813, he was in command of the advance of the army under Wilkinson destined for the conquest of Canada. At the time when Wilkinson suddenly ordered a retreat, Scott was fifteen miles in advance of the main American force, there being no body of British troops between him and Montreal, and the garrison at the latter place comprising only four hundred marines and two hundred sailors. In the spring of 1814 Scott was appointed Brigadier-General, and ordered to join Gen. Jacob Brown, then moving toward the Niagara frontier. It was in the ensuing campaign that Scott fought the battles of Chippewa and Lundy's Lane, which, coming after the disgraceful failures of Hull and Wilkinson, produced a sensation somewhat out of proportion to their importance. The British forces which were beaten at Chippewa numbered about twenty-one hundred men, and those on the American side nineteen hundred. Gen. Brown, in his official report of the engagement, declared Brig.-Gen. Scott "entitled to the highest praise our country can bestow." At Lundy's Lane Scott was again outnumbered, having but thirteen hundred men against eighteen hundred, but he routed the British, keeping his place at the head of his force until the end of the battle, although he had received two wounds, one in the side and another in the shoulder. The total British loss in the Chippewa campaign was 3,000, against 1,783 on the American side. Scott's wounds were so severe and painful that a long time elapsed before he was fit for duty. In September, 1814, however, Philadelphia and Baltimore being threatened by the enemy, Scott, although disabled, took nominal command of those cities. Two months later Congress passed a joint resolution complimenting Scott on his skill and gallantry in the battles of Chippewa and Lundy's Lane, and directing the striking and presentation to him of a gold medal. When the treaty of peace was ratified by the Senate in February, 1815, the appointment of Secretary of War was offered to him, but he declined it on the ground that he was too young, alluding to the objection which had been made on the score of age when he had been recommended for Colonel and Brigadier-General. After being employed for some time in reducing the army to a peace establishment, he was ordered to Europe for professional services. A few years after his return he prepared a work entitled, "General Regulations for the Army or Military Institutes." This was the first book published in the United States which could be accepted as a manual for both the regular troops and the militia. The system of infantry and rifle practice adopted by the Government in 1826 was wholly framed by Scott.

II.

A word about the services which Scott rendered in times of peace. It will be remembered that during the first third of this century a great deal of trouble had been caused in Georgia by the claim of the State to exercise criminal jurisdiction over the Cherokee Indians settled within her borders. The persistent pressure of this claim had led the United States Government in 1802 to agree to purchase the Indian lands and remove the Cherokees to some other territory. Eventually a treaty to that effect was made with a portion of the tribe, and, although many of the Indians refused to ratify the arrangement, the Government ultimately determined upon carrying it out, and Scott received orders to that effect in April, 1808. Owing to the animosity of the Georgians and the reluctance of the Cherokees themselves, the task was one of extreme difficulty. But Scott discharged it in a masterly manner, not only avoiding the scenes of butchery which were expected, but contriving to obtain the esteem and confidence of the Cherokees themselves. Scott conducted the Indian emigrants as far as the Mississippi, and he had intended to accompany them further west, when he was ordered northward to repress the troubles on the Canadian frontier. He found the citizens of Cleveland, Sandusky, and Detroit greatly excited, but he prevailed upon them to desist from any acts in violation of international law. While thus engaged he learned of the quarrel which had arisen between the State of Maine and the British province of New Brunswick. Proceeding to Portland, he found the inhabitants eager for the immediate seizure of the disputed territory, while at Augusta a large majority of the Legislature were for war. The strip of land in dispute was valued for ship timber; some British subjects having entered upon it and cut down some of the trees, the Governor of Maine had sent an agent with a posse to drive them off. The agent was imprisoned by the British, whereupon much angry correspondence took place between the authorities of Maine and of New Brunswick. Scott at once perceived that the only mode of settlement was to secure an agreement that the territory should be left unoccupied by either party until the controversy could be adjusted by the Governments of the United States and of Great Britain. To this compromise the Governor of Maine was willing to assent, providing the first overtures should come from the Governor of New Brunswick. To the latter, Sir John Harvey, as it happened, Scott had become well and favorably known during the war of 1812, and, through Scott's private letters, he was persuaded to make the concession necessary to appease the authorities of Maine. Thus was averted a collision which must inevitably have caused a war. It was not until 1859 that Gen. Scott was again called upon to exercise his diplomatic powers on the British-American frontier. Commissioners were at that time engaged in running a boundary line between the British possessions and the United States, and a controversy had sprung up as to which of the two countries was entitled to the San Juah Islands in Puget Sound. The question should have been referred to the two Governments for amicable settlement, but Gen. Harvey, then in command of the United States forces in that quarter, had seized the island, thus endangering the friendly relations between the two countries. The situation was critical, and President Buchanan requested Gen. Scott to go to Oregon and effect a peaceable adjustment of the controversy. Although Scott had recently been crippled by a fall, he proceeded from New York to Victoria by way of Panama, and after some friendly notes had been interchanged between him and the Governor of British Columbia the island was restored to its former status, the joint possession of both parties.

We can only glance at Scott's connection with the war against the Seminoles, in 1836. It is well known that Scott's attempt to put down these Indians was a failure, while the effort subsequently made by Zachary Taylor proved successful. President Jackson, who seems not to have liked Scott, recalled him and ordered an inquiry to be made as to the miscarriage of his operations in Florida. Scott addressed the court in his own defence, and the finding was unanimous that the plan of the Seminole campaign had been well devised and had been prosecuted with energy, steadiness, and ability. Our author points out that when Scott moved against the Seminoles, Florida was a *terra incognita*. The greater part of it had scarcely been visited by white men, and very little was known as to the settlements of the Seminoles. Where the hiding places of the Indians were could only be detected by pursuing them; at the time of Gen. Scott's assignment to the command all the information obtainable tended to place them on the waters of the Ouithlacooche and the St. John's rivers. It was, accordingly, against this portion of the country that the movements of Scott's army were mistakenly directed. It was not only the lack of correct information touching the whereabouts of the enemy, nor the want of ordnance, clothing, and subsistence, but the geographical peculiarities of Florida, its thickets, hummocks, everglades, and impenetrable swamps, which made this campaign almost fruitless and for some time afterward baffled all efforts of the Government to subdue this tribe of Indians. The conditions were materially changed when Col. Zachary Taylor won the battle of Okechobee. Yet it was not until some four years later that Gen. Worth made the treaty by which the Seminole troubles were finally allayed.

III.

We pass for a moment to the Mexican campaign. The author of this book reminds us that the Duke of Wellington was so interested in the march of Scott's army from Vera Cruz to the Mexican capital that he caused its movements to be marked on a map daily, as information was received. Admiring its triumphs up to the basin in which lies the City of Mexico, he then said, "Scott is lost. He has been carried away by his successes. He cannot take the city and he cannot fall back upon his base." It is certain that Scott had not troops enough to maintain his line of communication with Vera Cruz, and that, when he entered the valley of Anahuac, was almost as utterly cut off from his base as Cortez had been. After winning the battles of Cerro Gordo, Contreras, Churubusco, Molino del Rey, and Chapultepec, the force engaged in the capture of the Mexican capital amounted to less than six thousand men. The army overcome by Gen. Scott on his march to the capital had numbered not less than thirty thousand, and in nearly all the engagements it has been intrenched in chosen positions. The Mexicans admit that even the force ultimately employed for the defence of the capital was about twenty thousand. There was at all times an immense preponderance of artillery on the Mexican side.

It is not a pleasant recollection for patriotic Americans that the Government at Washington, influenced by political considerations, did its best to discredit Scott in the hour of his great victory. After peace had been made with Mexico, but while the American army was still occupying the Mexican capital, there came a despatch from Washington ordering Scott to turn over the command to a subordinate General of no particular distinction and to appear before a court of inquiry at Pueblo to answer charges which had been preferred against him, but which, as it turned out, were never pressed. What the country thought of this treatment was expressed by Daniel Webster in a speech delivered in the Senate on Feb. 20, 1848. "I understand, sir," he said, "that there is a report from Gen. Scott, a man who has performed the most brilliant campaign on recent military record, a man who has warred against the enemy, warred against the climate, warred against a thousand unpropitious circumstances, and has carried the flag of his country to the capital of the enemy—honorably, proudly, humanely—to his own permanent honor and the great military credit of his country. And where is he? At Pueblo—at Pueblo, undergoing an inquiry before his inferiors in rank, and other persons without military rank, while the high powers he has exercised with so much distinction are transferred to another—I do not say to one unworthy of them, but to one inferior in rank, station, and experience."

The fact that Scott was an eminent member of the Whig party and a possible candidate for the Presidency did not prevent Congress from voting him a gold medal, that was followed four years later by a joint resolution creating the brevet rank of Lieutenant-General of the army, which was thereupon bestowed on Winfield Scott, who thus became the first since Washington to hold that office.

TWO NEIGHBORS OF THE EARTH.

The Planet Venus, With Its Perpetual Day and Perpetual Night; and Jupiter Becoming the World of the Future.

Two very wonderful worlds are now conspicuously visible in the heavens, the planets Jupiter and Venus. He must be a careless observer of nature who has not noticed them in the early evening far outshining even the brilliant Sirius, the Achilles of the celestial host. Venus is the brighter to our eyes, but Jupiter is by far the larger in reality. The former adorns the southwestern sky just after sunset, while the latter shines a little southeast of the zenith. Venus is the twin of the earth, her diameter being about 7,700 miles, or only some 200 miles less than that of our globe. Jupiter is the Goliath of planets, being 84,500 miles in diameter, or about 1,300 times as great as the earth in volume. Jupiter makes a less brilliant appearance than Venus, because it is ten times as far away.

When a telescope is directed to the two planets the difference between them becomes much more striking. Venus looks then like a crescent moon, dazzlingly bright, with faint shades that can only be detected by a practised eye and a good glass. Jupiter, on the other hand, is magnified into a huge globe, perceptibly flattened at the poles, streaked with irregular belts of various colors on each side of its equator, and accompanied by its four moons, the shadows of one or more of which, as black as drops of ink, may occasionally be seen slowly crossing its vast cloudy surface.

Since Venus is so much nearer to the earth, its distance at present being less than 40,000,000 miles, while that of Jupiter is 400,000,000, it would be natural to expect that the surface of Venus should appear more clearly defined in telescopes than that of Jupiter does. As a matter of fact, however, we can see very little of the surface of Venus. The features of the planet are hidden in its own brightness. Apparently its atmosphere is filled with clouds, or else that atmosphere itself reflects so much of the sunlight that it becomes an effectual veil, concealing the face of the planet beneath. The best time to look at Venus with a telescope is in broad daylight. In fact, the planet can, just now, be seen with the naked eye as it crosses the meridian about 2 o'clock in the afternoon.

When best seen with a powerful telescope, the surface of Venus appears shaded with lighter and darker regions, recalling the lands and seas of Mars. But these appearances are so faint and ill-defined that great uncertainty exists in regard to them. Yet as long ago as 1727 Bianchini made a globe of Venus, based on his telescopic observations, and gave to certain dark spots on the planet such names as the "Sea of Columbus," the "Sea of Galileo," and the "Sea of Marco Polo."

Most of the earlier observers of Venus thought that that planet rotated on its axis once in about twenty-four hours, so that its days were of similar length to terrestrial days. But in 1890 the famous Schiaparelli, the discoverer of the canals of Mars, made the surprising announcement that Venus probably turns only once on its axis in revolving once around the sun. The year of Venus, or the time required for it to complete a revolution around the sun, is about 225 of our days. If Schiaparelli is right, then one side of Venus enjoys perpetual day while the other side is buried in endless night. Between the light and the dark hemispheres there is a narrow region, broadest at the equator, over which the sun slowly rises and sets once in the course of every 225 days.

It is not scientific to speculate concerning the possible inhabitants of Venus, but it is interesting. Do those of the sunlit side ever pay visits to their neighbors of the dark side? Can men indeed live, and can plants grow where there is no light but that of the stars? Yet starlight is but a faint sunlight sent from millions of distant suns, and faint only because they are so tremendously far away. And what, on the other hand, are the conditions of life under a never-setting sun? Do the inhabitants of that side of Venus, blinded by perpetual daylight, think that the universe consists only of the world they live on and the sun that lights it? Have their philosophers learned that by going round to the other side of their world they can see a sky ablaze with other suns, among which, brighter than Venus looks to us, shines their neighbor the earth? Are the inhabitants of the dark hemisphere of Venus concerned in any manner with the aurora-like illuminations which terrestrial astronomers have beheld there?

In short it appears that Schiaparelli's discovery about Venus has disclosed a new world for the imagination to disport in.

Turning again to Jupiter, we find other marvels on a vaster scale. In France, where they do everything dramatically, even in science, M. Eugène Antoniadi recently conceived the idea of making a "tour" of the planet Jupiter. He accomplished it with the aid of a telescope. Immense as the bulk of Jupiter is, it makes a complete turn on its axis in a trifle less than ten hours. By watching it continuously for ten hours, then, M. Antoniadi was able to see every part of it in succession. Of course the same result could be obtained by studying different parts of the planet at different hours on different nights, but the Frenchman's artistic sense of unity prevailed over considerations of convenience, and so he made his "*tour du monde de Jupiter en dix heures*"—Tour of the World of Jupiter in Ten Hours. At intervals of an hour he drew pictures of the planet, showing all the details that were visible with a telescope nine and a half inches in aperture. An inspection of these pictures gives one a very vivid idea of the appearance of the great planet as it swiftly rolls under the eyes of the observer.

There is evidently something very important going on upon Jupiter at the present time. We probably do not see the real surface of Jupiter any more than we see that of Venus. Jupiter, too, wears a veil, but it is of quite a different character from that of his petite sister planet. Venus is a cool and solid globe like the earth, surrounded by a transparent atmosphere. Jupiter is a heated, and liquid or partially vaporous globe, more resembling the sun than the earth except in its power of radiation. Although Jupiter is 1,300 times as large as the earth, it is only 310 times as heavy. In order to become as solid as the earth it must condense to one-quarter of its present size. Evidently such a process of condensation is now going on, and that is the cause of the disturbances which the telescope plainly shows are afflicting the big planet. The effects of these disturbances were very imposing when M. Antoniadi made his "tour," last October. They have been, perhaps, even more imposing during this present month of January. The greater part of what we see when we look at Jupiter is probably a mass of more or less heated clouds, suspended around the hot core of the planet within—a cloud ball, 86,500 miles in diameter. Above Jupiter's equator the surface of those clouds is whirling along at the rate of more than 27,000 miles an hour, in consequence of the planet's rapid rotation on its axis. The further north or south of the equator, of course, the shorter the space traversed in an hour. But away from Jupiter's equator there is evidently an actual lagging of the clouds; they do not go as fast as they should in order to maintain their place with reference to the equatorial clouds. The consequence is that Jupiter presents to us the spectacle of a vast cloud-enveloped world around whose equator a tremendous and ceaseless wind is blowing. Brilliant white patches in the bright equatorial cloud belt can be seen carried along in this swift and seemingly eddying current, passing the darker spots in the dusky and reddish belts that lie on each side of the equator, and then, having completed a relative revolution, overtaking the same spots and passing them again.

Then the dark belts to which have referred are themselves the seat of great disturbances. They are whirling and tumbling, and undergoing constant changes of form and composition. Their changes of color, including gray, brown, red, and purple, and occasionally brighter tints, seem to be in themselves indications of the tremendous activity of physical forces there. Sometimes the belts are split lengthwise, and gaps open in them thousands of miles across. Then streamers are thrown from one dark belt to the other over the brighter equatorial zone, 15,000 or 20,000 miles broad. Great round or elliptical white masses, almost as large as the earth sometimes, appear and disappear. North and south of the main belts other narrower streaks are seen encircling the planet, and here, too, motion and change are evident. Around the poles a comparatively even and unbroken bluish tint covers the surface, as if there comparative quiet and rest prevailed.

The mysterious red spot which made its appearance in 1878 in the southern hemisphere of Jupiter, covering a space of some 30,000 miles in length by 7,000 broad, still exists. It has undergone many vicissitudes during the sixteen years that astronomers have watched it. Sometimes it has almost completely faded from sight only to reappear again as bright and as startling red as at first. At present only a faint elliptical ring remains visible in the place of the spot, the central part of it being apparently covered with a whitish cloud. The great south belt of the planet bends some thousands of miles out of its course in passing the red spot, as if a powerful repulsion existed between them. In all the years that astronomers have studied this wonderful phenomenon, they have not succeeded in solving the mystery of it. Whether it is a glowing cloud, or a red hot gigantic slag floating on the molten surface of the slowly cooling planet, or an opening through the clouds, or a forming continent having its birth out of chaos, or the smoke of a volcanic conflagration, the astronomers are no more able to say to-day than they were sixteen years ago.

One thing, however, seems to be certain with reference to Jupiter, and that is that it is the world of the future, a world in the process of creation and of preparation, still too hot to be inhabited by beings like those upon the earth, and that may not attain to a condition resembling that of our planet before the human race has disappeared, or has given place to some higher product of evolution.

GARRETT P. SERVISS.

SOME MASCULINE AFFECTATIONS.

The Idiotic Stare, the Walking Stick, Evening Tie, and Nonchalance.

It is said on excellent authority that the idiotic stare is still in favor among the exotic youth of swelldom, and any fashionable young man who cannot learn how to abstract every atom of expression from the countenance and look on vacancy with an expression of imbecility, cannot belong to the select coterie or hold rank in the inner circles.

There are other important matters which must be carefully committed if one desires to be in the van of fashion. The first of these relates to the walking stick, and this involves perhaps the most serious responsibility. For the stick must be left at home when going to business, to church, or to make calls. The reason of the latter by-law is that in the language of the stick, to call upon a young lady while carrying a cane, implies that the caller is on sufficiently intimate terms to look in on her casually any time. What finer subtlety than this is to be found in the intricacies of feminine etiquette.

Then there is a fixed and immutable law governing the carrying of the cane. The correct style is to hold it at an angle of forty-five degrees, with the ferrule uppermost and forward. Of course, this is the sort of thing no man could possibly discover for himself, for the unsophisticated would naturally carry the stick with the point to the ground and in so doing stand revealed as unitiated in the supreme refinement of etiquette.

No man with a particle of self-respect would wear a made-up evening tie, and as some men find it quite impossible to learn to tie the bow themselves there has sprung up a new industry for women. A young woman in London has taken up the unique calling of going about from house to house tying the neckgear of distraught bachelors who cannot do it for themselves. The custom will probably be introduced on this side along with the other English quirks. Let no man in his conceit assume that when Pandora opened her casket women monopolized all the vanity.

Besides it isn't good form to be so critical. A nonchalant benevolence, superior and patronizing, is the latest mode, and it is not good form to be caustic or pessimistic any more.